

United States Court of Appeals
For the Ninth Circuit

UNITED STATES *ex rel.*

ALEJANDRO RACA ALCANTRA,

Appellant,

vs.

JOHN P. BOYD, District Director, Immigration and
Naturalization Service,

Respondent.

UPON APPEAL FROM THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT
COURT FOR THE WESTERN DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON
NORTHERN DIVISION

HONORABLE JOHN C. BOWEN, *Judge*

BRIEF OF APPELLANT

A. L. WIRIN,

SARAH H. LESSER,

Attorneys for Appellant.

316-317 Second and Cherry Building,
Seattle 4, Washington.

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Respondent.

No. 14522

UPON APPEAL FROM THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT
COURT FOR THE WESTERN DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON
NORTHERN DIVISION

HONORABLE JOHN C. BOWEN, *Judge*

BRIEF OF APPELLANT

JURISDICTIONAL STATEMENT

Statutory provisions believed to sustain jurisdiction.

Jurisdiction of the District Court was invoked under
the provisions of Title 28 U.S.C., Sec. 2241, 62 Stat.
94, as amended, particularly as follows:

“(a) Writs of habeas corpus may be granted
* * * district courts * * * within their respective
jurisdictions. * * *

“(c) The writ shall not extend to a prisoner,
unless he is in custody or by color of authority of
the United States. * * *”

Jurisdiction of the Court of Appeals for the Ninth
Circuit is invoked under the provisions of Title 28,
U.S.C. Sec. 2253, 62 Stat. 967, as amended, particu-
larly as follows:

"In a habeas corpus proceeding before a circuit or district judge, the final order shall be subject to review, on appeal, by the court of appeals for the circuit where the proceeding is had. * * *

B. Statute, the validity of which is involved.

Paragraph (7) of subsection 212(d) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952, 8 U.S.C. § 1182(d) (7), 66 Stat. 182, provides:

"The provisions of subsection (a) of this section, except paragraphs (20), (21), and (26), said subsection shall be applicable to any alien who shall leave Hawaii, Alaska, Guam, Puerto Rico, or the Virgin Islands of the United States and who seeks to enter the continental United States or any other place under the jurisdiction of the United States: PROVIDED, That persons who were admitted to Hawaii under the last sentence of Sec. 8(a) (1) of the Act of March 24, 1934, as amended (48 Stat. 456), and aliens who were admitted to Hawaii as nationals of the United States shall not be excepted by this paragraph from the application of paragraphs (20) and (21) of subsection (a) of this section, unless they belong to a class declared to be nonquota immigrants under the provisions of Sec. 1101(a) (27) of this title other than sub-paragraph (c) thereof, or unless they were admitted to Hawaii with an immigration visa. The Attorney General shall by regulations provide a method and procedure for the temporary admission to the United States of aliens described in this proviso. Any alien described in this paragraph, who is excluded from admission to the United States, shall be immediately deported in the manner provided by Sec. 1227(a) of this title."

Existence of jurisdiction.

Pre-Trial Order (R. 1-5) states the basis for existence of jurisdiction in that appellant was in custody under color of authority of the United States.

CONCISE STATEMENT OF THE CASE

Appellant was born in the Philippine Islands, an American national, on May 7, 1907. He came to the United States as a permanent resident on February 2, 1928 (R. 1) and has never departed from the United States since that date unless his trips to Alaska in the course of his employment can be considered departures from the United States (R. 1). In 1948 appellant was convicted of the crime of burglary in California. In 1953 appellant went to Alaska to work in the American canneries there, as he had done for many years, and upon his return on August 6, 1953 (R. 2) was arrested by respondent and exclusion hearings were held looking toward the deportation of appellant from the United States, respondent maintaining that under Section 212(a) (9) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (8 U.S.C.A. 1182(1)), appellant was subject to exclusion from the United States as an alien who had been convicted of a crime involving moral turpitude; and, further, that Section 212(d) (7) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (8 U.S.C.A. 1182(d) (7)), makes the provisions of Section 212 applicable to any alien who leaves Alaska and seeks to enter the continental United States (R. 3).

Appellant was given no notice of the charge made against him, nor was he furnished an interpreter, al-

though he indicated that he could not read any language (Respondent's Exhibit A3) and that he could not speak and understand the English language "Just a little bit" (Respondent's Exhibit B1). The Hearing Officer concluded that appellant was subject to deportation and the Board of Immigration Appeals dismissed the appeal (Respondent's Exhibit B23).

Respondent then directed appellant to produce himself for deportation from the United States whereupon the within action was instituted in Federal District Court (R. 14).

The court thereupon ruled as a matter of law, and thereby presented the issues now raised on appeal, as follows:

(1) That the provisions of Sec. 212(d)(7) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (8 U.S.C. Sec. 1182(d)(7)) apply to lawfully admitted aliens who are permanent residents of the United States who are returning to continental United States from the Territory of Alaska and that such aliens may be excluded from the United States if they come within any of the excluding provisions enumerated in Section 212(a) of said Act (R. 18).

(2) That the provisions of Sec. 212(d)(7) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (8 U.S.C. Sec. 1182(d)(7)) are not limited to aliens seeking to enter the continental United States for the first time (R. 19).

(3) That Congress has the power to and may constitutionally exclude from the continental United States certain classes of aliens returning from Alaska and

had previously been lawful permanent residents of the United States (R. 19).

(4) That the hearing accorded appellant satisfied constitutional requirements of procedural due process of law (R. 19).

(5) That the appellant is an alien, being a Filipino who lost his status as a national of the United States on July 4, 1946, by virtue of the proclamation of Philippine Independence (R. 19).

SPECIFICATION OF ERRORS

A. The district court erred in concluding that the provisions of Sec. 212(d) (7) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (8 U.S.C.A. Sec. 1182(d) (7)) apply to lawfully admitted aliens who are permanent residents of the United States upon their return to continental United States from the Territory of Alaska and that such aliens may be excluded from the United States if they come within any of the excluding provisions enumerated in Sec. 212(a) of said act.

B. The court erred in concluding that the provisions of Sec. 212(d) (7) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (8 U.S.C.A. 1182(d) (7)) are not limited to aliens seeking to enter continental United States for the first time.

C. The court erred in concluding that Congress has the power to and may constitutionally exclude from continental United States certain classes of aliens returning from Alaska who had previously been lawful permanent residents of the United States.

D. The court erred in concluding that the hearing

accorded appellant satisfied the constitutional requirements of procedural due process of law.

E. The court erred in concluding that appellant is alien.

SUMMARY OF ARGUMENT

The district court misconstrued congressional intent when it held that subsection 212(d)(7) subject non-citizens who are lawfully admitted to continental United States for permanent residence to the exclusion process upon their return from Alaska. The subsection properly and consistently interpreted provides only for the potential exclusion of non-citizens who seek to enter continental United States *through* the territories. Since 1913, admittance to the territories is only conditional, not unqualified. *Healy v. Backus* (C.A. 9) 221 Fed. 358. The instant case, however, involves the status of a person who has been unqualifiedly admitted to the United States, and who has not since that admittance left the jurisdiction of the United States.

In any event, if Congress did intend to subject persons admitted unqualifiedly into the United States to the exclusion process, then subsection 212(d)(7) is unconstitutional. Once admitted unqualifiedly, non-citizens enjoy the status of persons entitled to constitutional guarantees: *Bridges v. Wixon*, 326 U.S. 135. They can travel throughout the United States in pursuance of their right to work, which is a right necessarily included in the right to enter: *Truax v. Raich*, 239 U.S. 33. Upon their return from Alaska to the mainland they cannot, therefore, be considered as

ant aliens: see, *Barber v. Gonzales*, 74 S.Ct. 822; *Wong Hai Chew v. Colding*, 344 U.S. 590; *Carmichael Delaney* (C.A. 9) 170 F.(2d) 239; *United States v. Haughnessy* (S.D. N.Y.) 113 F.Supp. 49.

Appellant received no notice of charges against him nor was he provided with an interpreter; the record clearly shows that he is illiterate and only understands English "a little bit." Under the circumstances the constitutional requirements of procedural due process were not met. *Kwock Jan Fat v. White*, 253 U.S. 454.

Appellant is not an alien. He never "entered" the United States. He came here as an American national and never performed any voluntary act to shed that nationality. *Perkins v. Elg*, 307 U.S. 325; Congress has never acted to denationalize Filipinos residing in the United States and it should not be assumed that Congress intended to do so by inference.

ARGUMENT

Congress Did Not Intend to Provide for the Exclusion of Persons, Like Appellant, Lawfully Admitted to Permanent Residence in the Continental United States Upon Their Return From Alaska After Travel Directly to and From Alaska by United States Transport Facilities in Pursuance of Their Seasonal Contractual Employment.

The pertinent portion of paragraph (7) of subsection 212(d) of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952, 66 Stat. 182, provides:

"The provisions of subsection (a) of this section * * * shall be applicable to any alien who shall leave Hawaii, Alaska, Guam, Puerto Rico, or the Virgin Islands of the United States, and who

seeks to enter the continental United States or a
other place under the jurisdiction of the United
States. * * *”

Subsection 212(a), 66 Stat. 182, enumerates the
excludable classes of aliens, and is introduced by the
language:

“Except as otherwise provided in this Act, the
following classes of aliens shall be ineligible to
receive visas and shall be excluded from admission
into the United States.”

The visas referred to are either immigrant or non-
immigrant visas. (See sections 203-11 of the Act.
Stat. 175-181.)

Subsection 101(a)(15), 66 Stat. 166, defines the
immigrant alien as “every alien except an alien who
within one of the following classes of non-immigrant
aliens.” House Report, No. 1365, February 14, 1919,
at pages 36-37, explains the basic distinction between
immigrants and non-immigrants:

“Aliens who meet the qualitative tests and are
eligible for admission into the United States are
classified under existing law as either immigrants
or non-immigrants. *The immigrant class includes*
those aliens who seek to enter the United States
for permanent residence, while the non-immigrant
class includes those aliens who seek to enter
for temporary periods of stay.” (Emphasis supplied)

This definition is in full accord with the proposition
that immigration concerns immigrants and permanent
residents; see, *Lapina v. Williams*, 232 U.S. 178. The
power to exclude does not extend to persons lawfully
resident in the United States, for when “Th

ing in legal contemplation no entry, there * * * [can] be no exclusion." *Carmichael v. Delaney* (C.A. 9) 170 (2d) 239, 243.

The provisions of subsection 212(d) (7), it is noted, only apply to an alien who "seeks to enter the continental United States."

Subsection 101(a) (131), 66 Stat. 166, defines entry as:

"* * * any coming of an alien into the United States from a foreign port or place or from an outlying possession. * * *"

The provisions of subsection 212(d) (7), it is noted, only apply to an alien who "seeks to enter the continental United States."

A cursory reading of paragraph (7) of subsection 212(d) might lead to the conclusion that Congress intended to treat any coming of an alien from the territories as an entry into the United States for the purposes of exclusion. If such an interpretation is adopted, however, it immediately raises the problem of an apparent inconsistency in the use and meaning of the term "entry" since an entry is defined as the "coming of an alien * * * from a foreign port or place or from an outlying possession," whereas Alaska and the other territories are not foreign ports or outlying possessions. (The outlying possessions are defined in subsection 101(a) (29), 66 Stat. 166, as "American Samoa and Swain Islands.") Indeed, Alaska, and the other territories enumerated in subsection 212(d) (7) are defined as part of the United States, in the geographical sense, in subsection 101(a) (38), 66 Stat. 166.

Assuming, however, that there is no inconsistency between subsection 212(d)(7) and the definition of the term "entry", see, *Helvering v. Credit Alliance Corp.* 316 U.S. 107; *United States v. Raynor*, 302 U.S. 540, the import of subsection 212(d)(7) should be to provide for the exclusion of aliens resident in the territories who seek to acquire permanent residence in the continental United States "from a foreign port or place or from an outlying possession" *via* one of the territories.

An examination of the legislative history of the paragraph confirms this latter interpretation. The original version, S. No. 2550, p. 66, and H.R. No. 567, p. 36, provided as relevant:

"The provisions of subsection (a) of this section * * * shall be applicable to any alien who shall leave *the Canal Zone, Hawaii, Alaska, Guam, Puerto Rico, or the Virgin Islands of the United States, or any outlying territory or possession of the United States*, and who seeks to enter the continental United States or any other place under the jurisdiction of the United States. * * *" (Emphasis supplied)

The italicized portion is that which was deleted by Congress before final passage. The reason for the deletion seems obvious, since, to retain that language would render the subsection redundant in view of the definition of "entry", which itself subjects travel from the deleted areas to the exclusion provisions of the Act; that is, there would be a direct entry into the continental United States from those areas, rather than an entry *through* a territory of the United States. The

act that the Canal Zone and the outlying possessions appear in the original bills apparently was the result of the ancestry of the provision. Former 8 U.S.C. 173, 9 Stat. 874, passed in 1917, is specified by *the House report, supra*, at pages 144-145, as the immediate predecessor to subsection 212(d) (7). It provided:

"The term 'United States' shall be construed to mean the United States, and any waters, territory, or other place subject to the jurisdiction thereof, except the Isthmian Canal Zone; but if any alien shall leave the Canal Zone or any insular possession of the United States and attempt to enter any other place under the jurisdiction of the United States, nothing contained in this chapter shall be construed as permitting him to enter under any other conditions than those applicable to all aliens."

This legislative genesis is more important, however, due to the fact that (as stated in House Report, *supra*, page 53, and Senate Report, No. 1137, January 29, 1952, at p. 14) :

"Section 212(d) (7) of the bill continues in effect the special procedures applicable to aliens who travel from the Panama Canal Zone, territories, or outlying possessions to the continental United States or any other territory under the jurisdiction of the United States. Under the bill such procedures will also be applicable to aliens traveling from Alaska to the continental United States. * * *"

It should be noted that the reports state that the paragraph applies to aliens who *travel from*, rather than *return from*, the territories to the continental United States.

The former law drew the distinction between the continental U. S. and the insular territories. The latter category includes Hawaii, but not Alaska; see former 8 U.S.C. Sec. 297, 32 Stat. 177: see, former 8 U.S.C. Sec. 295, 32 Stat. 176, 33 Stat. 428, since Alaska was considered to be part of the mainland. Under the present law however, Congress recognizes three categories of American territory; the continental United States, the territories (including Alaska), and the outlying possessions (which for purposes of entry are treated as foreign ports). This fact explains why the reports state that only travel from Alaska is modified by subsection 212(d) (7).

A further examination of the historical background of subsection 212(d) (7) moreover, discloses that the rationale behind the exclusion of aliens coming to the continental United States from the insular territories has been the theory that the original entry into the territories is only *conditional*, and not one permitting automatically, an unqualified entry into the continental United States.

The cases of *In re Singh* (N.D. Cal.) 209 Fed. 77 and *Healy v. Backus* (C.A. 9) 221 Fed. 358, involve the validity of amended paragraph (3) of Rule 1 of the 1913 regulations of the Commissioner General of Immigration, which provided (as quoted in the *Healy* case, *supra*, at 362):

“That aliens applying at continental ports and surrendering the certificate above described shall, upon identification, be permitted to land, provided it appears that at the time such aliens were admitted to the Philippines they were not men-

bers of the excluded classes or likely to become public charges if they proceeded to the mainland."

In discussing this rule, the Court of Appeals pointed out in the *Healy* case, *supra*, at 362-363:

"* * * The amended rule discards the idea that aliens once admitted to insular possessions are entitled as of course to admission to the continent without further examination, and has injected the thought that aliens might be likely to become a public charge on the mainland when such likelihood would not exist as to them in the insular possessions, and hence they are subject to further examination upon their entry at continental ports."

Regarding the basis for the new rule, the District Court in the *Singh* case, *supra*, stated at 703-4:

"There may be reasons for rejecting an alien at continental ports which would not exist if he were applying to enter the Philippines. * * * A more rigid test may therefore well be applied to those seeking admission to the mainland than that applied to those seeking admission to the Philippines."

The Court of Appeals in the *Healy* case, *supra*, at 363, agreed:

"* * * Why is it not a reasonable and perfectly natural * * * [practice] to admit such persons to the insular possessions on condition that if they proceed to the mainland they must submit to further examination as to their likelihood of becoming public charges in the latter country? It is but the application and enforcement of the act according to the conditions found to exist, and is not, we think, beyond the authority conferred by Con-

gress. *The admission to the insular possession under the amended Rule 14 is not an admission generally, but only qualifiedly and conditionally so that applicant's exclusion from the continent may yet proceed upon the ground that he is one of the excluded classes, and not upon the ground of having, after entry, become a public charge for causes theretofore existing after unqualified admission.*" (Emphasis supplied)

Thus, the exclusion of aliens who seek to enter the continental United States for permanent residence from the insular territories was upheld precisely because the original entry into the insular territory was not an unqualified admission into the United States generally. See also: *Matsuda v. Burnett* (C.A. 9) 68 F.(2d) 272; *Sugimoto v. Nagle* (C.A. 9) F.(2d) 207.

This conditional entry theory is not only totally consistent with the proposed interpretation of the instant provision, indeed from an examination of the congressional debates it becomes clear that it was the theory which guided Congress in its passage of subsection 2(d)(7).

On April 14, 1952, as reported in 98 Cong. R. M. 69¹ the proposed act was opened for amendment in the House of Representatives. Mr. Farrington, delegate from Hawaii, introduced the following addition to the proposed definition of the phrase "lawfully admitted for permanent residence" in paragraph (2) of the subsection 101(a):

"Persons who were admitted to Hawaii under"

¹Page references hereafter are to this issue of the Congressional Record.

the last sentence of section 8(a) (1) of the Act of March 24, 1934, as amended (48 Stat. 456), shall be deemed to have been lawfully admitted for permanent residence." (page 4468)

The act referred to is the Philippine Independence Act which subjected Filipinos who came to the mainland after 1934 to the immigration laws. As nationals they could before then come to the continental United States without restrictions: see, *Toyota v. United States*, 268 U.S. 402; *Gonzales v. Williams*, 192 U.S. 1; *Mangaoang v. Boyd* (C.A. 9) 205 F.(2d) 553. The "last sentence" referred to, exempted from immigration restrictions those Filipinos who only sought entry into Hawaii. Thus the proposed addition would have made those Filipinos who came to Hawaii unrestricted by the immigration laws, permanent residents of the United States.

Mr. Walter, the co-author of the act, concluded his argument against the addition as follows:

"* * * to adopt the amendment, by so doing, you are saying, 'You can come to the mainland,' and I do not think we ought to do that." (page 4469)

This comment is vitally significant, for it is a clear expression of Mr. Walter's opinion that if an alien is a permanent resident of the United States, residing in Hawaii, he cannot be prevented from traveling to the continental United States.

The amendment was rejected, but later on the same day Mr. Farrington, as a companion proposal, introduced the following substitution for the pertinent provisions of subsection 212(d) (7) :

"The provisions of subsection (a) * * * shall be applicable to any alien who shall leave the Canal Zone, Guam, Puerto Rico, or the Virgin Islands of the United States or any outlying territory or possession of the United States, other than Hawaii or Alaska, and who seeks to enter the continental United States. * * *" (page 4471).

The debate on the proposed amendment again confirms the suggested interpretation. Mr. Farrington stated in support of the amendment:

"The purpose of this amendment is to give aliens who now enjoy the status of permanent residents of the Territory of Hawaii the status of permanent residents of the United States.

"The practical result of the adoption of the amendment would be to provide for aliens in Hawaii who are permanent residents the same privilege of travel to the States and among the States that is permitted to aliens who are permanent residents of the States." (page 4472)

Mr. Walter in reply to this argument did not challenge the underlying thesis that permanent residents of the United States are unaffected by the section. He stated, in part:

"* * * It is important to bear in mind the fact that there are a great many aliens in Hawaii who have never been properly screened. There they are, and if this amendment is adopted they would come to the United States without any further screening and could remain here. * * * It is entirely a question of aliens coming to the United States, and I for one do not think that they should be admitted whether they come from Hawaii or whether they come from Europe, without being

screened in order to determine whether or not they are subversive.”² (page 4473)

“The only thing under this law that is required of them is an additional screening when they arrive at the Pacific Coast in order to determine whether or not they are admissible under the general immigration laws of the United States; that is all.” (page 4473)

The tenor of Mr. Walter’s argument is markedly reminiscent of the discussion in *Healy v. Backus, supra*.

To recapitulate the history of restrictions upon entry from the territories: In 1913, by regulation, the practice of admitting aliens into the continental United States automatically upon proof of lawful admittance into the insular territories was abandoned for the practice of making the original entry into the territory conditional only, subjecting the alien who seeks entry into the continental United States to further exclusion proceedings. This procedure was upheld, in 1915, upon the conditional entry theory, in *Healy v. Backus, supra*.

In 1917, Congress legislated generally on the subject, but did not restrict travel of aliens from Alaska, which at that time was treated as part of the continental United States.

In 1952, Congress provided that admittance from Alaska should likewise be conditional, no longer entitling aliens with such residence to admittance to the continental United States as a matter of right.

These comments are consistent with the proviso in subsection 212(d)(7) which withholds from Filipinos who entered Hawaii unrestricted by the immigration laws the exemption from the visa-exclusion provisions of paragraphs (20) and (21) of subsection 212(a).

Appellant herein, however, is a non-citizen who has already been unqualifiedly admitted to the continental United States for permanent residence; he is not therefore, an immigrant seeking to come to the mainland; see *Barber v. Gonzales*, 74 S.Ct. 822.

The mere fact that his employment requires him to travel to the territory of Alaska does not alter the nature of his original entry, or his status as a resident of the United States: see *Kwong Hai Chew v. Colding*, 344 U.S. 590; *Carmichael v. Delaney*, *supra*. In *United States v. Shaughnessy* (S.D. N.Y.) 113 Supp. 49, after the mandate of this court in the *Chew* case had been returned, Chew brought a supplemental writ of habeas corpus to test the validity of the District Director's denial of bond pending his hearing. The District Court ordered Chew released, and stated referring to the decision of *Kwong Hai Chew v. Colding*, *supra*, at 53:

"[The] * * * underlying rationale appears to be that the circumstances of his employment as a seaman on a ship of American registry did not break the continuity of his permanent residence so as to deprive him of those rights which clearly he be enjoyed as an alien resident on terra firma."

It should be noted that the departure from the continental United States in the *Chew* and *Carmichael* cases involved travel to foreign ports and territories. Here, however, the travel involved is within the United States after unqualified admission into the United States. In the words of Representative Walter, as permanent resident of the United States "[he] can come to the mainland."

Thus, the District Court erred when it concluded in *L.W.U. v. Boyd*, 111 F.Supp. 802, that the exclusion provisions of subsection 212(a) applies to appellant and others in like situation because "The words 'any alien' include aliens situated as are those here involved," *International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union v. Boyd* (W.D. Wash.) 111 F.Supp. 802, 806. Such a conclusion fails to appreciate that the words "any alien" are modified by the phrase "who seeks to enter the continental United States." The alien involved herein, however, is not seeking to enter the United States; he is already lawfully admitted for permanent residence.

It should be noted that the District Court in the instant case referred to and adopted throughout the reasoning and decision of the three judge court in its *per curiam* decision in the case of *International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union, Local 37 et al. v. Boyd, etc.*, 111 F.Supp. 802 *et seq.* (R. 7).

I. Congress Does Not Have the Constitutional Power to Provide for the Exclusion of Aliens Who Are Lawfully Admitted to the Continental United States When They Seek to Return After Travel Directly to and From Alaska in Pursuance of Their Seasonal Employment in Alaska.

The court concluded as regards the constitutional issues here presented, in *International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union v. Boyd*, 111 F.Supp. 802, at 807:

"* * * Keeping clearly in mind the vast and broad powers of Congress to enact legislation excluding or expelling aliens as balanced against

the limited constitutional rights of all aliens, including lawfully admitted resident aliens of continental United States, we cannot hold that the portion of the statute under attack offends or goes beyond the constitutional authority vested in Congress even though its provisions make applicable restrictions upon aliens leaving the territories of the United States, including Alaska, and entering or reentering other territories, states or places under United States jurisdiction when not applicable to aliens permanently resident in or traveling within or between the states. Neither are we aware of any constitutional limitation upon the power of Congress which would forbid its classification in the same category, for the purpose of exclusion, lawfully admitted aliens permanently residing in continental United States when seeking reentry into the states from a territory of the United States, and similarly situated aliens seeking reentry to the United States from a foreign land."

The first relevant inquiry, therefore, is: What is the nature and source of the exclusion power? In the early *Head Money Cases*, 112 U.S. 580, the power of Congress to impose a head tax upon the ship company for every alien brought into the United States was challenged; this court, identifying the power employed, stated, *supra*, at 595:

"* * * The power exercised in this instance is not the taxing power. The burden imposed on the ship owner by this statute is the mere incident to the regulation of commerce, of that branch of foreign commerce which is involved in immigration."

Having established the constitutional source of the

power to regulate immigration, the opinion concluded, *supra*, at 600:

“* * * Congress having the power to pass a law regulating immigration as a part of the commerce of this country with foreign Nations, *we see nothing in the statute by which it has here exercised that power forbidden by any other part of the Constitution.*” (Emphasis supplied)

The italicized portions from the opinions in the *Head Money* and *Chinese exclusion* cases, demonstrate that, from the earliest judicial consideration of the exclusion power, it has never been argued or assumed that the power was unrestricted. *The power to exclude is a sovereign power*, but one arising from the power delegated to Congress to regulate foreign commerce, and *which is limited by the Constitution.*

In the leading case of *Ikiu v. United States*, 142 U.S. 51, these concepts were restated, *supra*, at 659, as follows:

“It is an accepted maxim of international law, that every sovereign nation has power, as inherent in sovereignty, and essential to self-preservation, to forbid the entrance of foreigners within its dominions, or to admit them only in such cases and upon such conditions as it may see fit to prescribe. * * * In the United States this power is vested in the national government, to which the Constitution has committed the entire control of international relations, in peace as well as in war. It belongs to the political department of the government, and may be exercised either through treaties made by the President and Senate, or through statutes enacted by Congress, upon whom the Constitution has conferred power to regulated

commerce with foreign nations, including the entrance of ships, the importation of goods and the bringing of persons into the ports of the United States; to establish a uniform rule of naturalization; to declare war, and to provide and maintain armies and navies; and to make all laws which may be necessary and proper for carrying into effect these powers and all other powers vested by the Constitution in the government of the United States or in any department or officer thereof. U.S. Const. art. 1, & 8; *Head Money Case* 112 U.S. 580; *Chae Chan Ping v. United States* 130 U.S. 581, 604-609."

Thereafter, *supra*, at page 660, the opinion amplified the limitations upon the exclusion power:

"* * * It is not within the province of the judiciary to order that *foreigners who have never been naturalized, nor acquired any domicile residence within the United States, nor even been admitted into the country, pursuant to law, shall be permitted to enter, in opposition to the constitutional and lawful measures of the legislative and executive branches of the national government. As to such persons, decisions of executive or administrative officers acting with powers expressly conferred by Congress, are due process of law.*" (Emphasis supplied)

These concepts were recently reaffirmed in *United States ex rel. Knauff v. Shaughnessy*, 338 U.S. 537, 543:

"Thus the decision to admit or to exclude an alien may be lawfully placed with the President, who may in turn delegate the carrying out of this function to a responsible executive officer of the sovereign, such as the Attorney General. The action of the executive officer under such authority

is final and conclusive. *Whatever the rule may be concerning deportation of persons who have gained entry into the United States, it is not within the province of any court, unless expressly authorized by law, to review the determination of the political branch of the government to exclude a given alien.*" (Emphasis supplied)

When Congress exercises the commerce power in fields other than immigration, it is clear that "resort to the Commerce Clause can [not] defy the standards of the due process." *Secretary of Agri. v. Central Roig. Ref. Co.*, 338 U.S. 606, 616.

Moreover, and more important to the issues involved herein, the status of imports (immune from state taxation) survives only "until they are sold, removed from the original package, or put to the use for which they are imported." *Hooven & Allison Co. v. Evatt*, 324 U.S. 652, 657. In other words, once goods are merged with the general mass of goods within the United States they lose their status as imports. Similarly, once aliens have lawfully acquired permanent residence, they cease, in the constitutional sense, to be immigrants. They may be deported pursuant to law, but they have become "invested with rights guaranteed by the Constitution to all people within our borders. Such rights include those protected by the First and Fifth Amendments and by the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment," *Bridges v. Wixon*, 326 U.S. 135, Justice Murphy concurring at 161, and quoted with approval in *Kwong Hai Chew v. Colding*, 344 U.S. 590, 596-597 (footnote 5). Their "status as * * * person[s] within the meaning and protection of the

Fifth Amendment cannot be capriciously taken from [them]." *Kwong Hai Chew v. Colding, supra*, at 601.

Once an alien is "admitted to the United States under the Federal law * * * [he is] admitted with the privilege of entering and abiding in the United States and hence of entering and abiding in any state of the Union." *Truax v. Raich*, 239 U.S. 33, 39.

Paragraph (38) of subsection 101(a), 66 Stat. 160 defines United States as:

"* * * except as otherwise specifically herein provided, when used in a geographical sense * * * the continental United States, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands of the United States."

Paragraph (36) of subsection 101(a), 66 Stat. 160 provides:

"The term 'State' includes (except as used in section 310(a) of title III [not involved herein] Alaska, Hawaii, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands of the United States."

Thus, while it is true, as is stated in *Hooven & Alison Co. v. Evatt, supra*, at 671-672:

"The term 'United States' may be used in any one of several senses. It may be merely the name of a sovereign occupying the position analogous to that of other sovereigns in the family of nations. It may designate the territory over which the sovereignty of the United States extends, or it may be the collective name of the states which are united by and under the Constitution."

it is clear that when dealing with the status of alien lawfully admitted for permanent residence, the term

"United States" is used in the sense of "the territory over which the sovereignty of the United States extends."³ See *Toyota v. United States*, 268 U.S. 402;

Although Congress can regulate the territories free of the constitutional restrictions regarding legislation for the States; see, e.g., *Downes v. Bidwell*, 182 U.S. 244; *Hawaii v. Mankichi*, 190 U.S. 197; *Balzac v. Puerto Rico*, 258 U.S. 298; when it deals with the status of resident aliens, it is subject to constitutional restrictions. The instant provision, as interpreted, is a restriction on the status and rights of persons to travel, work and remain within the territorial limits of the United States; it is not merely the regulation of the territories.

Under present statutes, for example, aliens who have been convicted of a single crime involving moral turpitude prior to entry are excludable (Section 212(a)(9), 66 Stat. 182), whereas, to be expellable, the crime must have been committed within five years of the last entry (Section 241(a)(4), 66 Stat. 204). Moreover, even if the non-citizen gains admittance upon his return from Alaska, if the return is treated as a new entry, new possibilities for expulsion may arise because of the temporal proximity of the later entry to acts which may be committed in the future. Thus there would be a substantial change of status in any event.

This meaning is also indicated by subsection 212(d)(7) itself, since its provisions cover travel from the territories to "the continental United States or any other place under the jurisdiction of the United States." *Gonzales v. Williams*, 192 U.S. 1.

The appellant herein enjoys employment rights, pursuant to a lawful collective bargaining contract negotiated by his Union, in the territory of Alaska which constitutes the source of a substantial portion of his yearly income. Providing for the exclusion of persons like petitioner who could not otherwise be expelled, and see *Mangaoang v. Boyd*, 205 F.(2d) 553, cert. denied, 346 U.S. 876) and *Barber v. Gonzalez* *supra*, if they travel to Alaska, is tantamount to providing for the forfeiture of their job rights heretofore enjoyed there. To deny such job opportunities "tantamount to the assertion of the right to deny the entrance and abode, for in ordinary cases *they cannot live where they cannot work.*" *Truax v. Raich* *supra*, at 42 (Emphasis supplied).

In *Kwong Hai Chew v. Colding*, *supra*, at 592, the facts relevant to residence and employment were:

"* * * the resident alien is a seaman, he currently maintains his residence in the United States and usually is physically present there, however, when he is returning from a voyage as a seaman on a vessel of American registry with its home port in the United States, that voyage has included scheduled calls at foreign ports in the Far East. * *

The court thereafter stated *supra*, at 600:

"* * * the constitutional status which petitioner indisputably enjoyed prior to his voyage * * [was not] terminated by that voyage. From a constitutional point of view, he is entitled to due process without regard to whether or not, for immigration purposes, he is to be treated as an entrant alien, and we do not now reach the question whether he is to be so treated."

and also commented, *supra*, at 598-599:

“* * * we interpret this regulation as making no attempt to question a resident alien’s constitutional right to due process. Section 175.57(b) uses the term ‘excludable’ in designating the aliens to which it applies. That term relates naturally to entrant aliens and to those assimilated to their status. The regulation nowhere refers to the expulsion of aliens, which is the term that would apply naturally to aliens who are *lawful permanent residents physically present within the United States*.” (Emphasis supplied)

Paragraph (7) of subsection 212(d), as interpreted, provides, in any event, that resident aliens whose employment requires that they travel to Alaska (as distinguished from foreign ports) be “treated as * * * entrant alien[s]” upon their return, despite the fact that they have never left the territory of the United States. We are thus confronted with a far more compelling example of the issue left in doubt in the *Chew* case, *supra*.

If the status of permanent resident alien, which cannot be capriciously taken,” and which, if taken, deprives one “of all that makes life worth living,” has any substantial significance, *it must survive travel within the United States in pursuance of one’s employment*, a right which is necessarily included in the right to enter the United States: *Truax v. Raich*, *supra*.

The power to exclude, as has been seen, is derived from the power to regulate foreign commerce: *Head Money Cases*, *supra*; *Ikiu v. United States*, *supra*. Thus the requirement of an entry into the United States becomes a pre-condition to exclusion: *Carmi-*

chael v. Delaney (C.A. 9 170) F.(2d) 239, is not merely a statutory precondition, but is, in fact *the constitutional precondition to exclusion*. Appellant came to the United States as an American national on an American ship. He worked in Alaska in American canneries, going to and from Alaska in the course of his employment, in American ships and planes. He never "entered" the United States in the statutory sense; *Barber v. Gonzales, supra*, it is apparent that congressional power to exclude appellant and others of his status cannot arise from the power to regulate *foreign* commerce. Thus the essential question is: Does an alien enter, in the constitutional sense, upon his return from Alaska to his permanent residence on the mainland, when he has never left the territory of the United States?

We are not, it must be emphasized, dealing with the rights of "foreigners who have never * * * acquired any domicile or residence within the United States." *Ikiu v. United States, supra*. Nor are we dealing with inanimate goods, which may constitutionally be considered imports although their origin of transit is the territories and not foreign ports: see *Hoover & Allison Co. v. Evatt, supra*. We are concerned with the status of a person lawfully admitted to the United States for permanent residence who has never left "the territory over which the sovereignty of the United States extends."

When the power to exclude was challenged in *Heck v. Backus* (C.A. 9) 221 Fed. 358, the alien having acquired lawful residence in the territories, the exclusion was upheld because the alien had only made

conditional entry, and thus did not have to be expelled. The court stated, *supra*, at 363:

“* * * The admission is not an admission generally, but only qualifiedly and conditionally, so that applicant's exclusion from the continent may yet proceed upon the ground that he is one of the excluded classes and not upon the grounds of having, after entry, become a public charge for causes theretofore existing after unqualified admission.”

The necessary and assumed converse of this rule is obvious: once an alien has obtained unqualified admission into the United States generally he may travel throughout the territory of the United States without fear of being excluded.

The Supreme Court was doubtful whether there was an entry, in the constitutional sense in the *Chew* case, where the alien's claim to continuous residence within the United States was based only on service in a vessel of American registry. If doubts exist under those circumstances, surely no doubt can exist where there is actual, continuous physical residence within the United States. To hold otherwise is capriciously to deprive the resident alien of his right to remain, travel and work within the United States; for, in actuality he would be *expelled* by the facile, semantic technique of labeling the expulsion an exclusion.

It is therefore submitted that subsection 212(d)(7) of the Immigration and Nationality Act, as interpreted and applied by respondent and his agents, transgresses the constitutional powers of Congress to regulate foreign commerce.

III. Appellant Was Denied a Fair Hearing.

The United States Supreme Court in *Wong Yang Sung v. McGrath*, 339 U.S. 33, modified, 339 U.S. 908 (1950) held that the hearing procedures of the Administrative Procedures Act were applicable to deportation hearings. Congress then passed an Act, 64 Stat. 1048 (1950), 8 U.S.C. Sec. 155a (Supp. 1952) specifically exempting deportation proceedings from the A.P.A. provisions. It is significant, however, that the court in *Wong Yang Sung v. McGrath*, *supra*, at page 50 discussed the possibility of such a course and held that it might be unconstitutional, stating "it might be difficult to justify" exempting deportation proceedings from the Administrative Procedures Act because the tribunal in that case would fail to meet "at least currently prevailing standards of impartiality." The court later, in *Kwong Hai Chew v. Colding*, *supra*, was even more definite, stating, at page 600

"From a constitutional point of view, he is entitled to due process without regard to whether or not, for immigration purposes, he is to be treated as an entrant alien, and we do not now reach the question whether he is to be so treated."

It thus appears that appellant at the very minimum was entitled to a fair hearing with all of the safeguards of due process.

The sections of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 which apply to special inquiry hearings are:

Section 235(b) "Every alien (other than an alien crewman), and except as otherwise provided in subsection (c) of this section and in section 273(d), who may not appear to the examining

ing immigration officer at the port of arrival to be clearly and beyond a doubt entitled to land shall be detained for further inquiry to be conducted by a special inquiry officer. The decision of the examining immigration officer, if favorable to the admission of any alien, shall be subject to challenge by any other immigration officer and such challenge shall operate to take the alien, whose privilege to land is so challenged, before a special inquiry officer for further inquiry."

nd,

Sec. 236(a) "A special inquiry officer shall conduct proceedings under this section, administer oaths, present and receive evidence, and interrogate, examine, and cross-examine the alien or witnesses. He shall have authority in any case to determine whether an arriving alien who has been detained for further inquiry under Sec. 235 shall be allowed to enter or shall be excluded and deported. The determination of such special inquiry officer shall be based only on the evidence produced at the inquiry. No special inquiry officer shall conduct a proceeding in any case under this section in which he shall have participated in investigative functions or in which he shall have participated (except as provided in this subsection) in prosecuting functions. Proceedings before a special inquiry officer under this section shall be conducted in accordance with this section, the applicable provisions of sections 235 and 287(b), and such regulations as the Attorney General shall prescribe, and shall be the sole and exclusive procedure for determining admissibility of a person to the United States under the provisions of this section. At such inquiry, which shall be kept separate and apart from the public, the alien may have one friend or relative pres-

ent, under such conditions as may be prescribed by the Attorney General. A complete record of the proceedings and of all testimony and evidence produced at such Inquiry, shall be kept.

It may be seen that few of the details of the hearing procedure are delineated in the statute. For instance, nothing is said in the statute about a notice of charges. The pertinent regulations, 8 Code Fed. Regs. Sec. 235.11, indicate that if an alien is to be detained for further inquiry, he must receive a "Notice to Alien Detained for Hearing by Special Inquiry Officer (Form I-122) the regulation goes on to state:

"If the alien is unable to read or understand the notice, it shall be read and explained to him by an employee of the Service, through an interpreter, if necessary, prior to the further inquiry before the Special Inquiry Officer."

Appellant was entitled to notice of the nature of the charges brought against him; such knowledge is an essential of a fair hearing; *Chin Chiu Fong v. Phelan* 181 F.(2d) 589 (C.C.A. 9 1950). From the record it is apparent that appellant received no such notice and because of this deficiency, appellant was unaware of the danger which faced him. Although appellant did receive Form I-122 (which in form is a printed strip of paper which looks quite insignificant (See R. Respondent's Exhibit B-8), the Regulation quoted, *supra*, was violated in that the notice was not explained to him in any way prior to the hearing.

The whole content of the record of the hearing indicates that appellant had no understanding of the nature of the hearing. Appellant cannot read in an

language (R. Respondent's Exhibit A-9), speaks English very poorly and understands everyday English in a very limited way. He indicated that at the beginning of the hearing:

"Q. Do you speak and understand the English language?

A Just a little bit."

The inquiry officer chose to disregard the answers of appellant and to continue to ask him questions couched in the legal and technical terms that could not be understood by many native-born Americans with much more formal education than petitioner.

The courts have held there is an affirmative duty to inform the non-citizen of his rights. *U. S. v. Dunne* (C.C.A.N.Y. 1924) 297 Fed. 447. The Code of Federal Regulations, Code Fed. Regs. Sec. 236.11, states:

"* * * If the alien is not represented by an attorney or representative, the special inquiry officer shall advise the alien of his rights, as described in this section, and shall assist the alien in the presentation of his case. * * *"

It is clear that the inquiry officer in the instant case having ascertained that appellant could understand English "only a little bit" and could not read or write any language, had an affirmative duty to see that an interpreter was obtained. He also had an affirmative duty to stay proceedings until appellant could obtain assistance.

If an administrative hearing is to be more than a formalistic ritual, it must be fair at least as judged by administrative standards. *Kwock Jan Fat v. White*, 53 U.S. 545 (1920); *Chin Chiu Fong v. Phelan*, *supra*.

It is submitted that appellant did not receive fair hearing in that he was not presented with a statement of charges; he did not have an interpreter and was not adequately informed of his rights.

IV. Appellant Is Not an Alien.

The all-embracing issue before this court is whether the appellant is now an alien. Obviously, if he is not an alien, the deportation proceeding against him must fall. Concededly, he was not an alien at any time in his life prior to July 4, 1946. He was born a national of the United States alone. He at no time had dual nationality. American nationality was his birthright. *Toyota v. United States*, 268 U.S. 402; *Gonzales v. Williams*, 192 U.S. 1.

The contention is, however, that by virtue of the United States- Philippine Independence Treaty and the Presidential Proclamation of July 1946, *supra*, the appellant was divested of his nationality and thereupon cloaked with alienage. It presently rests upon the rationale of the court in the case of *Cabebe v. Acason*, 183 F.(2d) 795, wherein it was declared:

“* * * the Philippine Islands came to the United States by cession. And by such acquisition many individuals became nationals of the United States. Later, the United States relinquished sovereignty over them and their country. It follows Filipinos, nationals of the United States inhabiting the islands at the date of such relinquishment lost their status of nationality. The narrower question follows: Does such loss also occur as to Filipino nationals of the United States domiciled in the United States? * * *” (p. 880)

“* * * The status of United States nationality for Filipinos was the direct result of the United States’ assumption of sovereignty over the Islands. When the United States relinquished its sovereignty, there remained no basis for such status.

“The United States had it desired it, could have provided that Filipinos permanently residing in the United States would not lose their United States nationality upon the recognition of Philippine independence. * * *

“The question is not directly answered (but, as we think, it was inferentially answered) * * * there is no special reference of inclusion or exclusion in any of these acts to Filipinos who were no longer residing in the islands on the date of their independence, * * *.” (p. 801)

“* * * It is our conclusion that the United States government intended the status of Filipinos, regardless of domicile or place of residence at the date of Philippine independence, to be entirely separate from any phase of adherence to the United States.” (p. 802)

The power of the United States as a sovereign nation to cede, dispose of or otherwise relinquish its sovereignty, *nolens volens*, over parts of its territory, together with the inhabitants residing therein subject to American sovereignty, is not here challenged. Preceding this to be an incident of sovereignty, *Jones v. United States*, 137 U.S. 702; *DeLima v. Bidwell*, 182 U.S. 1, it becomes an entirely different proposition to assert as an incident of sovereignty the right to expropriate or divest of nationality, *nolens volens* (and

expel from this country)⁴ nationals of the United States residing outside the ceded territory and within the jurisdiction of the United States at the time of cession, because of birth within said territory.

It is appellant's contention that the rights of nationals so situated are no different than would be those of United States citizens.

United States citizens cannot be divested of their nationality except through expatriation. The fundamental basis for expatriation is that there must be a voluntary act on the part of the individual to shed his nationality. In *Perkins v. Elg*, 307 U.S. 325, 333, the court said:

"Expatriation is the voluntary renunciation or abandonment of nationality and allegiance."

To the same effect, see *Savorgnan v. United States*, 338 U.S. 491, 497, 498; *MacKenzie v. Hare*, 239 U.S. 299.

That Congress cannot by fiat declare a loss of nationality has been held by this court on many occasions. In discussing that proposition the court said in *United States v. Wong Kim Ark*, 169 U.S. 649, 703:

"The power of naturalization, vested in Congress by the Constitution, is a power to confer citizenship, not a power to take it away. 'A naturalized citizen,' said Chief Justice Marshall, 'becomes a member of the society possessing all the rights of a native citizen and standing, in the view of the Constitution, on the footing of a native citizen.'"

⁴Stripped of nationality, Congress may order the expulsion of Filipinos for any or no reason. *United States ex rel. Harisiades v. Shaughnessy*, 342 U.S. 580, 586, 598.

tive. The Constitution does not authorize Congress to enlarge or abridge those rights. The simple power of the national legislature is to prescribe a uniform rule of naturalization, and the exercise of this power exhausts it, so far as respects the individual. The Constitution then takes him up, * * * Congress having no power to bridge the rights conferred by the Constitution upon those who have become naturalized citizens by virtue of acts of Congress, a fortiori no act or omission of Congress, * * * can affect citizenship acquired as a birthright, by virtue of the Constitution itself, without any aid of legislation. The Fourteenth Amendment, while it leaves the power where it was before, in Congress, to regulate naturalization, has conferred no authority upon Congress to restrict the effect of birth, declared by the Constitution to constitute a sufficient and complete right to citizenship."

It is undisputed that appellant never voluntarily renounced or abandoned his United States nationality or committed any act inconsistent with the rights and obligations of such nationality. It is urged by the Government, however, that appellant and all other persons of Filipino birth residing in this country prior to 1934, automatically lost their nationality by the treaty establishing the independence of the Philippine Islands.

If nationality is analogous to, and cloaked with the same protection that is accorded citizenship, then clearly appellant could not be divested of his nationality by that treaty, *residing as he did in this country*, than if he were a citizen. For the Philippine Independence Act of 1934 and the Treaty constituted no vol-

untary act of renunciation or self-expatriation on the part of petitioner. He did not vote on the ratification of the Independence Act of 1934; nor could he have voted thereon so long as he elected to remain within this country.

Is nationality, then, analogous to and protected like citizenship? Either it is, or else it must be analogous to alienage, for the constitution with respect to nationality recognizes only two categories.

The Constitution speaks of "citizens" and "natural born citizens" of the United States in Article I and Article II, and of "citizens or subjects" of foreign states in Article III. Before the passage of the Fourteenth Amendment it contained no definition of citizen. The Fourteenth Amendment says in its opening sentence, "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State where they reside." The term "national" does not appear anywhere in the Constitution of the United States.

Because of this particularity in the language of the Constitution, any status recognized by the law, other than that of citizenship or alienage, must be assimilated to citizenship or alienage if it is to comport with the Constitution. Distinction may be made among citizens, and also among aliens, but any classes or sub-classes into which citizens or aliens may be divided may not combine the two major and mutually exclusive classes recognized by the Constitution. Unless this is so, the words of the Constitution are meaningless. An alien has been defined by the court in *Low v. Sney v. Backus*, 225 U.S. 460, 473, as:

“One born out of the jurisdiction of the United States and who has not been naturalized under their Constitution and laws.”

The essence of this definition is birth outside of the jurisdiction of the United States. This is the characteristic which distinguishes the alien and sets him apart in a class different from the citizen and national. A person having been born under the jurisdiction of the United States, lacked this essential characteristic of alienage. On the other hand, he was endowed with the positive essential characteristic of citizenship, to-wit: birth within the *jurisdiction of the United States*.

Next to birth, the all-important requirement and characteristic of citizenship is allegiance and fealty to the government. And this, too, is a concomitant of nationality. Speaking of persons born in the Philippine Islands, the court said in *Toyota v. United States*, 307 U.S. 162, 410:

“The citizens of the Philippines are not aliens. See *Gonzales v. Williams*, 192 U.S. 1, 13. They owe no allegiance to any foreign government.”

In the earlier case of *Fourteen Diamond Rings v. United States*, 183 U.S. 176, the court in referring to the Philippine Islands, said “Their allegiance became due to the United States and they became entitled to its protection,” p. 179.

In the Nationality Act of 1940, 54 Stat. 1137, 8 U.S.C. 501(b), adopted after the Philippine Independence Act, Congress equated nationals with citizens:

“The term ‘national of the United States’ means (1) a citizen of the United States, or (2) a person who, though not a citizen of the United States,

owes permanent allegiance to the United States. *It does not include an alien.*" (Emphasis supplied)

This concept, expressed in the 1940 Act was carried forward in the present 1952 law. Section 101(a) (1) of the Act. 8 U.S.C.A. 1101(a) (3), defines an alien to be:

"Any person not a citizen or national of the United States."

and it defines a national of the United States (Section 101(a) (22) 8 U.S.C.A. 1101(a) (22) as:

"(A) a citizen of the United States, or (B) a person who, though not a citizen of the United States, owes permanent allegiance to the United States."

As part of his allegiance, a national is subject to the duty of bearing arms and giving his life, if necessary, in defense of this country. This appellant and native born Filipinos in this country have been subject to that duty and obligation *equally with all citizens.*

Thus, by the similarity of birth under United States jurisdiction; by the similarity of like allegiance to the country; by the similarity of like obligation to serve, defend and safeguard this country; by the similarity of the like protection due to them from this country, nationals have been equated with citizens. On the other hand, in no significant characteristic can they be equated with aliens. In fact, in every decision of the court, where the character of nationality had been discussed, the court was sharp to point out that nationality cannot be equated with alienage. *Gonzales v. Williams, supra; Toyota v. United States, supra*

It must therefore follow, that nationality, like citizenship, may not be lost, divested, forfeited or impaired without a voluntary act of renunciation or abandonment. Appellant, therefore, is still a national.

Assuming, however, that power to expatriate nationals resides in Congress, it is not seriously contended that Congress has so acted with reference to Filipinos residing in this country prior to the adoption of the Independence Act of 1934. This was admitted by the court in the *Cabebe* case, *supra*, when it held that loss of nationality had taken place. The court said:

"The question is not directly answered (but, as we think, it was inferentially answered) * * * there is no special reference of inclusion or exclusion in any of these acts to Filipinos who were no longer residing in the Islands on the date of their independence." (p. 801)

The court there relied upon various acts of Congress from which it drew an inference that Congress must have intended to denationalize Filipinos residing in the United States.

Appellant's nationality, with which he was born, and which he has at all times maintained by unequivocal acts, may not be taken away by inference. See, *Manili v. Acheson*, 344 U.S. 133. In upholding United States nationality in *Perkins v. Elg*, 307 U.S. 325, 337, the court said:

"If the abrogation of that right [to elect nationality] had been in contemplation, it would naturally have been the subject of a provision suitably explicit. Rights of citizenship are not to be destroyed by an ambiguity."

The court has never been unmindful that the law abhors forfeitures and will favor that construction of a statute which avoids such result. *Washington Pub. Co. v. Pearson*, 306 U.S. 30, 41; *United States v. One Ford Coach*, 307 U.S. 219, 226; *Knickerbocker Life v. Norton*, 96 U.S. 234, 242. Expatriation of a citizen is a forfeiture of the nationality he obtains by birth,—a forfeiture which deprives him of “that which makes life worth living.” In a case involving the construction of a deportation statute, the court said:

“We resolve the doubts in favor of that construction [avoiding deportation] because deportation is a drastic measure and at times the equivalent of banishment or exile, * * *. It is the forfeiture * * * of a residence in this country. Since a forfeiture is a penalty * * * since the stakes are considerable for the individual, we will not assume that Congress meant to trench on his freedom beyond that which is required by the narrowest of several possible meanings of the words used. *Fong Haw Tan v. Phelan*, 333 U.S. 6, 11.”

If resulting deportation evoked such concern from the Supreme Court because it is a forfeiture of residence in the United States, how much more should the court be concerned where an implied construction is being used to deprive petitioner not only of his residence but his birthright, his United States nationality. See also *Bennett v. Hunter*, 76 U.S. 326, 336.

CONCLUSION

For the foregoing reasons, it is respectfully submitted that the judgment below should be reversed.

Respectfully submitted,

A. L. WIRIN,

SARAH H. LESSER,

Attorneys for Appellant.

